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FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH DIFFERENCES IN VIEWS OF SOCIAL OBJECTS: A COMPARISON OF SELECTED AFRICAN AND ALBERTA STUDENTS

by

© T. LUTATINA MALIYAMKONO

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Factors Associated with Differences in Views of Social Objects: A Comparison of Selected African and Alberta Students" submitted by T. Lutatina Maliyamkono in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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Date November 6, 1973

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the degree of deviations by the African students from the established mean of the Alberta students in terms of attitudes toward given social items.

The necessary data were gathered by means of an instrument constructed specifically for this study. Two hundred Alberta students were tested, and ninety seven CIDA supported African students from South of Sahara (total population). A total of sixty seven questionnaires were returned by the African students. A number of hypotheses were examined in an attempt to discover the correlates of difference between African and Alberta students. When African students were grouped in sets in terms of their foreign travel experience, prior working experience before joining the University of Alberta, and according to their perception of the most informative means of communication used by the newly arrived African students, significant differences were discovered through use of the analysis of variance and the x^2 test.

Hopefully, the findings of the study may provide data and planning direction for the University of Alberta, the Canadian International Developing Agency, and Commonwealth African governments in order to improve arrangements of study programmes in Canada.

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Chapter 1

NATURE OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

The study examined the degree of differences in the responses of African students from the average response of Alberta students for each of the selected ten social items.

Chapter one starts with the general basis of the whole study in terms of research work which has been done, then the definitive statement of problem for this study is presented. This section includes identification of the sub-problem. The significance of the study is another major topic explored in this chapter; assumptions are listed, as are the limitations of the study. Finally, the chapter presents the definitions of terms that will be met throughout in the study. A short summary at the end gives indications of what the next chapter contains.

Previous research indications reported by Smith (1969) has demonstrated that there are socio-culturally based as well as educationally-based differences in attitudes and values (Lehmann 1960) and (Morris 1960). It has also been revealed by a variety of studies that attitudes are subject to modification and that the nature of modification depends in part upon the type and quality of life experiences, the type of social contact, the presence or absence of group approval of attitudes (Rosenberg 1956). Other studies (Berelson and Steiner 1964) have reported that the longer the immigrants are in

a foreign country, the closer their reported attitudes approach those typical of the host country, and the greater their reported attitudes differ from those of their native country. There are also a good number of related studies that assess the attitude shift that is evidenced by differences between college freshmen and seniors.

THE PROBLEM

In general terms, the research was intended to investigate the degree of differences of attitudes among the African and the Canadian students. A number of variables have been formulated and, as may be noted later, an attempt is made to relate the degree of the differences of attitudes to these variables.

Sub-problem Area I: (Attitudinal differences and other factors)

1. How do African students' attitudes toward certain social objects differ from attitudes held by Albertan students toward similar social objects?

2. Is the degree of difference of attitudes towards social objects held by African students as contrasted to Alberta students related to the time they spend in Canada?

3. Is the nature of social group membership in Canada related to the difference or similarities between Africans and Alberta students?

4. Is the difference or similarity of attitudes held by African and Alberta students toward social objects related to age, area they grew up, time spent in school, working experience, travel experience?

5. Is the difference or similarity of attitudes held by African and Alberta students toward social objects related to marital status, family size, the most widely-spoken language?

Sub-problem Area II: (Association and Communication)

6. Has personal communication been the major source of information about Alberta for African students?

7. Do African students perceive orientation programmes the major source of information?

8. What do African students perceive to be the most effective communication media - T.V., radio, newspapers and magazines?

Sub-problem Area III: (Responses to similarities and differences)

9. Is the difference or similarity between Africans and Albertans in attitudes toward social objects related to the awareness of a change of culture: from African to Albertan?

10. Is the difference or similarity in attitudes related to whether or not the Africans perceive that social pressure exists and whether or not they purposely adjust, fight or withdraw?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Figures from the Registrar's Office indicate there is a growing number of Commonwealth African students at the University of Alberta. It is also known that these African students come from a social setting that is quite different from the Alberta environment. Thus a discovery of the relationship between the degrees of differences and/or similarities of attitudes held by African students when compared to those of Alberta

students and selected various variables may be instructive. The study was intended to locate significant factors in the social interaction that may be related to the differences, and possibly make recommendations as to what might be termed as an "acceptable" way of meeting the needs of the African student on an Alberta campus. For example, foreign student orientation programmes and those who arrange African students' study programmes could benefit from such an analysis. The study may also provide some light on the questions which some African governments are asking as to whether African students should or should not study in foreign countries.

Indeed, the study is not intended to solve problems that accrue due to differences in attitudes. Rather it is hoped that through studies of this nature, the problems may be defined and approached with a better understanding.

Considering what has been said in the preceeding paragraphs, different sets of hypotheses have been formulated. Regarding the statements of the hypotheses, much has been determined from the literature which affects the direction indicated in each hypothesis. For example, literature for the null hypotheses in set one tends to be neutral while literature for hypotheses in set two indicate directions. Another distinction between the two sets of the hypotheses is that while those in set one are based on factors of personal background, hypotheses in set two are based on rather general information ranging from time respondents have spent in Canada to their travel experiences.

Demographic factors that form several of the hypotheses in

set one are: age, marital status, level reached at a university, awareness of cultural differences, life style change perception, family size, widely spoken language and orientation programme experience.

Basis for Hypotheses in Set One

The following statements provide the basis for all the hypotheses in set one. It will be noted that while Richardson (1969) relates in general to all hypotheses in set one, Smith's (1969) reports of Lysgard (1954) is specific for hypothesis 1(a), as Castle (1966) and Goldthorpe (1955) are for hypothesis 1(f); and Christ and Cook (1953-59) for hypothesis 1(g).

(a) Richardson (1969), has argued that,

> Attitudes and beliefs are in large part products of an individual's general culture, including his family, religious and educational background. So long as the individual remains in the context of his culture these same influences tend to preserve existent attitudes and beliefs, by exerting social pressure for conformity.

(b) Smith (1969) quoted Lysgard (1954) to have written that younger (under twenty-five) Norwegians scored lowest on his measure of adjustment and the older group (over forty) scored highest.

(c) Castle (1966) observed that,

> . . . when we refer to the African 'home' we must usually dismiss from our minds the picture of the European home in which children grow up from birth through adolescence in closed family circle . . . this dispersal of children among members of the extended family is made easy by long established tradition.

Goldthorpe (1955) noted,

> The family bond linking rich and poor, literate, influential and insignificant, militantes against any idea of strictly isolated "class." It also prevents the group from being cut off from its origins.

(d) Christ and Cook (1953-59) have reported that,

> In short, our studies provided only limited support for the assumption that command of English is an important condition for foreign students' adjustment in the United States. Other investigators, however, have concluded that command of the language is an important factor in adjustment. Niyekawa (1952) commented that, of all the problems Japanese students in Hawaii face, the language difficulty seems to be the greatest, and that this difficulty often leads to feelings of inferiority and depression. Morris (1960) found that students rated by their interviewer as having no difficulty in English scored higher than those rated as having some difficulty, on an index of satisfaction based on ratings of satisfaction with housing, religious facilities, leisure-time activities, and academic experiences. On an index of satisfaction limited to academic experiences, however, the two groups did not differ. Sewell and Davidsen (1961) found that, among Scandinavians at an American University, the better a student's English, the better his academic adjustment and the greater his satisfaction with his American visit.

Hypothesis 1(a). There is no significant relationship between age of the African students and the amount of difference from Alberta mean attitude toward selected social objects.

Hypothesis 1(b). There is no significant relationship between marital status of African students and their difference from the mean Alberta students attitude toward selected social objects.

Hypothesis 1(c). There is no significant relationship between time the Africans have spent in university and their difference in attitude toward selected social objects from their Alberta counterparts.

Hypothesis 1(d). There is no significant relationship between African students' awareness of differences of culture and their difference in mean attitude toward selected social objects from Alberta students.

Hypothesis 1(e). There is no relationship between perception of difference of life style change since coming to Canada and the deviations of African students from the mean Alberta attitude toward

selected social objects.

Hypothesis 1(f). There is no significant relationship between the size of the African family and the difference from the mean Alberta attitude toward selected social objects.

Hypothesis 1(g). There is no significant relationship between the African students' widely spoken language and their differences from the mean Alberta attitude toward selected social objects.

Basis for Hypothesis 1(h)

The influence of orientation programmes for adjustment in a foreign country is a controversial one. While educators involved in orientation programmes at various centers claim that those who attend orientation classes have a slightly better command of the language. Examination of the twelve orientation programmes received from twelve Canadian universities in 1972-73 college year confirms this claim. In 1959 Christ and Cook found a statistically significant difference between students experiencing orientation and students having no orientation experience. Yet they also found that both groups, orientation and non-orientation, were equally likely to approach Americans for assistance, usually fellow students. They also found that foreign students rarely, if at all, sought information from people from other countries.

Hypothesis 1(h). It is, therefore, hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between participation in orientation programmes and the degree of differences between the African students attitude toward selected social objects and that expressed by the Alberta students.

Hypotheses in Set II. Alternate hypotheses in Set II: The alternate hypotheses for null hypotheses in Set II are non-directional except in the following instances. It is, therefore, hypothesized that there will be significant differences in either direction from the Alberta mean, when Africans are grouped according to:

(a) Time spent in Canada

(b) Group membership
  (i) formal membership
  (ii) informal membership

(c) Working experience
  (i) government
  (ii) non-government
  (iii) total experience

(d) Town size

(e) Travel experience

Each of the hypotheses carries a base as its justification for its direction.

Basis for Hypothesis II(a) (Time spent in Canada)

Lambert and Bressler (1954), have noted some variations:

> . . . during the first year, a desire to meet a variety of Americans, with a considerable reliance on institutional arrangements for such contacts; during the second year, less reliance on institutions, specially serving foreign students, and expanded participation in general student activities; in the third year, greater selectivity and restriction of contacts with Americans to a few American friends.

Hypothesis II(a). It is hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between the length of stay in Canada and the amount of divergence of the African student's attitude towards selected social objects from the Alberta mean attitude toward the same objects.

Basis for Hypothesis II(b) (Group Involvement)

Group opinion is probably strongest in influencing individual attitudes according to Olmstead (1959). Christ and Cook (1952-53, pp. 202-203) reported.

> . . . there was a rather consistent tendency for students who scored high in interaction with Americans to respond more favourably (or to be rated as more favorable by the interviewers) than those who had less interaction with Americans.
> . . . because of the many problems we cannot conclude that differences in interaction with Americans lead to differences in attitudes, but can only suggest, that in view of our findings, the hypothesis seems worth further investigation if the problems of measuring attitude change can be dealt with successfully.
> . . . even if we found that those who associated most with Americans showed the most favourable change in attitudes, it would not be clear whether this favourable change was a product of the social interaction itself or of the predisposition that led the students to associate with Americans.

Also, Christ and Cook (1952-59) noted, "a good deal of social contact with Americans is established early in the student's stay." Morris (1960) in Smith (1969) found that students

> . . . who were highly identified with their home countries scored higher on an index of satisfaction with various aspects of their stay in the U.S. than did those who were less involved.

Sewell and Davidsen (1961) in Smith (1969) found that

> . . . students who were more preoccupied with their home culture, were likely to adjust less . . . and less satisfied with their stay.

Some Africans belong to groups dominated by Albertans. Some Africans belong to groups dominated by African members.

Hypothesis II(b). It is hypothesized that Africans in groups dominated by Albertans will deviate no less or no more from Alberta students' standard than Africans in groups dominated by African members.

Basis for Hypothesis II(c) (Working Experience)

Studied as a group, African teachers have been found to be higher than Asian and white teachers in Africa on both effective and cognitive orientations toward the government. Evans (1971) writes,

> Another thread of concern running through the comments indicates that the teachers are consciously aware of their responsibilities as employees of the national government.

Hypothesis II(c). African students who have extensive working experience for their governments will tend to report larger differences from the Alberta mean, than Africans with little or no working experience.

Basis for Hypothesis II(d) (Town Size)

In most African countries there exists a contrast between town and rural life, not only in levels of income, activity and availability of social services the towns enjoy, but also in terms of some unique characteristics. Larger towns tend to be cosmopolitan: with Africans, Asians and Europeans living together. There seems to be a gradual loss of rural influence in the cities, although some African city dwellers tend to have two homes. There seems to be a clear distinction between urban and rural life. Castle (1966), confirmed this through studies of three large cities of East Africa, found that there exist two life styles: rural and urban.

Hypothesis II(d). It is hypothesized that African students who have spent most of their lives in big towns will deviate less from the Alberta mean attitude toward selected social objects than those of the rural background.

Basis for Hypothesis II(e) (Foreign Travel Experience)

Christ and Cook (1952-59) found that previous foreign experience of foreign students studying in the United States showed important relationships to the adjustment measures the researchers selected. They also reported.

> The more foreign experience a student had had, the less difficulty he reported with various aspects of his stay . . . it appears that having had experience in living abroad often proved to be a great help.

Hypothesis II(e). It is hypothesized that African students who have extensive foreign travel experience will differ less from the Alberta mean attitude toward selected social objects than African students who have had little or no foreign travel experience.

Basis for Hypothesis in Set III

According to Berelson and Steiner (1964), media: newspaper and magazines, T.V., and radio can be effective in forming and reinforcing opinions and attitudes or in producing a shift on far distant or unfamiliar issues, and that mass media infrequently changes attitudes. Also, Lazar and Bell, in Richardson (1969), have reported a study on media which shows a greater effect of T.V. and radio on attitudes and opinions as against unspecialized magazines and newspapers. However, several research findings reported by Richardson (1969), Katz and Lazarfeld (1955), show that person-to-person contact is a more effective means of communication than the formal media.

Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis III(a). Of the formal media, T.V. is perceived as being a more significant source of information in matters of opinions and attitudes than radio, newspapers and magazines.

Hypothesis III(b). The 'opinion leader' is perceived to be a greater source of information in matters of opinions and attitudes than any other information media.

ASSUMPTIONS

(i) Valid assessment of attitudes toward the selected social objects was obtained through a questionnaire.

(ii) The selected social objects to which respondents were asked to react represent a whole area of social objects that would be common for the African and Alberta students.

(iii) In spite of bilingualism, it was assumed that respondents had a uniform interpretation of the social objects.

LIMITATIONS

There are four major limitations in this study. These include first: the questionnaire may not have covered all possible responses. Second, the questionnaire items may have been interpreted differently by different respondents. Third, the social objects might have different degrees of impact to individual respondents. And fourth, due to time and other restrictions, this study is limited to a cross sectional rather than a longitudinal approach which would test the same students a number of times over a period of time they are in Canada. The longitudinal study would allow a follow-up observation

of the cohort after the students had returned home. However, this cross-sectional study could provide the basis for the longitudinal follow-up.

DELIMITATIONS

The study was confined to Commonwealth African students under the auspices of the Canadian International Development Agency studying at the University of Alberta, and to Alberta students who have reached a third year of university life and who have had their high school education in the province of Alberta.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Media. Two categories of media have been considered by prior studies (Engel, Knapp and Knapp, 1969). This research has dealt with the four categories of media that are characterized as "informs."

(i) T.V.

(ii) Radio

(iii) Opinion Leader

(iv) Newspapers and magazines

Social Objects. These are items, topics or current issues arising from the social and physical environment. In this study they were used as indicators upon which to assess differences and similarities in attitudes.

Opinion Leader. The opinion leader is a person able to assert a certain amount of influence on another. He may be a friend, a neighbor, a colleague or any other person in contact with another.

His influence is essentially based on competence (what one knows), and on a strategic social location (whom one knows).

Attitudes. In this study attitudes were dealt with in terms of Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962:139) as "enduring systems of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies with respect to social objects."

Primary Groups. Primary group is distinguished from primary relation. Cooley's definition (1922-23) which has been widely used by many students of society, was used:

> . . . characterized by intimate face-to-face association and co-operation. They are primary in several senses but chiefly in that they are fundamentally informing the social nature of ideas of the individual. The result of intimate association, psychologically, is a certain fusion of individualities in a common whole, so that one's very self, for many purposes at least, is the common life and purpose of the group. Perhaps the simplest way of describing this wholeness is by saying that it is a "we" - it involves the sort of sympathy and mutual identification for which "we" is the natural expression. One lives in the feeling of the whole and finds the chief aims of his will in that feeling.
>
> This definition carries a sense of unlimited commitment, a high degree of cohesion based on shared common beliefs and attitudes and assignment of status to the whole person to form unity.

SUMMARY

Chapter one was primarily concerned with the organization of the study, the identification of the problem, significance of the study; assumptions, limitations, delimination, and the definition of terms. The next chapter deals with recent literature available and relevant to this study.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature and establishes the relationship of the research hypotheses to the problem. The literature is discussed in five broad categories that are considered relevant to the study. They include: the effects of culture on values and attitudes, factors associated with differences and change of attitudes, group association and attitude formation, the role of the opinion leader in attitude formation, and the part that mass media plays as a means of communication in the transformation of attitudes.

CULTURE, VALUES AND ATTITUDES

There have been a great number of studies conducted in the following broad areas: culture, attitude and values. What is discussed here is the literature relating to the differences between students studying in foreign schools and their hosts in each of these three areas.

Smith (1969) maintains that the major difficulty of foreign students in the Americas is that of adjustment. He sees the foreign student faced with contrast and conflict with his own values. Smith asserts that culture is organized around broadly and commonly shared assumptions, fundamental preferences and standards of opinions. Therefore, Smith sees foreign students and Americans defining things differently, approaching them differently, talking and acting about

things from different value perspectives.

Extending his argument, Smith (1969:265) points out that,

> Balancing membership and loyalties is the task imposed on the foreign student by the fact he has two homes - the country to which he is committed to return, and the American setting in which he finds himself.

The foreign student is forced to maintain a double orientation, and in this is quite unlike the tourist who does not really become involved in the life of the country he visits. The foreign student is equally unlike the immigrant who deliberately replaces his old values and attitudes with new ones.

The "war" of different cultures sooner or later may develop antagonism within the individual. According to Smith (1969:266), this is aided by the notion of the student as an "unofficial ambassador" who is faced with the low regard in which North Americans see African countries, plus the American ignorance of African countries. These conditions seem to raise the questions which are related to the defence mechanisms of withdrawal, rationalization, displaced hostility and the like. Studies made by Bressler (1954), in Smith (1969) among Indian students in the United States; Scott (1954), Morris and Davidsen (1954) among Scandinavian students all emphasize these points.

On the other hand, studies done by Watson and Lippitt (1955) on German leader teams returning to Germany, and those studies conducted by Kiehl (1951) on Indian students, have demonstrated that the agreement resulting from the antagonism (settling requirements) imposed by exposure to two cultures (modus operandi), gives way once they are in their homeland.

Factors Associated with the Change of Attitudes

More recent literature and research findings have shed light on the origin of attitudes. The evidence suggests that attitudes are learned, acquired and modified differently at different stages of individual development. These discussions of attitude changes draw much of their references from studies of culture, values theory, and such other things as therapy and conditioning. Sargent (1966:53) suggests,

> Evidence indicates clearly that attitudes are learned. Allport has suggested that they may arise out of one's daily experience or from a single dramatic instance, or they may be taken over ready-made from parents, playmates, and others.

Newcomb, Turner, and Converse (1965:93) maintain that,

> Although meaningful attitudes may be formed toward remote objects, these attitudes are anchored in their reserves of information and are rather readily dislodged by small amounts of new information.

In addition, Tannenbaum (1956) illustrated, through research findings, that attitudes about an object are subject to change when contradictory information is presented, and more so when the collection of information about currently-held attitudes toward the object is inadequate. This is by no means an indication that firmly-held attitudes toward an object will be changed by incoming information. Such an assertion would naturally contradict the principle that variation in attitudes depends on variations in the characteristics of the situation in which the information is delivered, including, of course, the type of information which is transmitted and the transmitting agent.

Another feature that may have effects on the shift of an

attitude is the degree of strength with which the attitude is held. Studies have demonstrated that a firmly-held attitude will defy pressures for change, all things being normal. This is not only true for individuals but also for groups. If a group firmly holds certain attitudes, then it becomes difficult to change from that belief. The group is more resistant to change in firmly-held attitudes because its members will normally not be willing to deviate from the group. However, there are certain variables that intensify the resistance or facilitate the change of attitudes.

Age, Marital Status and Life Style

A few of the factors that lead to group formation and thus effect attitude change are discussed in the sub-problems and hypotheses of these research effort. These include age, marital status and life style.

The nature and influence of values in most societies is such that the mature individuals will tend to influence the youth in certain stages of the latter's development. Present-day observations of the "generation gap" may seem to be a direct contradiction, but in fact during the early years of youth they will tend to comply with what the family - parents set to be the standard. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) take this position also, "but both outside and inside (family) . . . crosses the boundaries of age, tends to go from older to younger." Studies done on voting habits in the United States have demonstrated further that there is usually no significant difference in voting behavior among members of the family, young or old.

According to Katz and Lazarsfeld (1964), married men have been

found to be more influential in some important decision areas. However, men appear to have a less significant influence in decisions on domestic issues or in decisions about issues that tend to be of concern to the opposite sex. Other differences exist, of course. For example, professional influence may override family influence. The mechanical design and efficiency of a car will influence men's attitudes when issues of buying a new car arise. However, other studies indicate that women have more influence in choosing a car for those aspects other than its mechanics - i.e., body, shape, etc.

Life style, like education and status, may have some influence on attitudes, yet both clear definitions and research studies are lacking in this area.

Retention of Attitude

There have been research reports on retention of learned material. Although learned facts do not necessarily involve personal feelings and commitment as in the case of attitudes; the way in which newly learned facts are retained may give us some idea of the retention of newly learned attitudes. Hovland, Lumsdaine and Sheffield (1949) concluded that retention of learned material was largely related to time. They found there was gradual forgetting of learned material, tests given immediately after a film stimulus indicated higher scores on details than in subsequent tests given over a period of time, which revealed a steady loss of detail. Other phenomena have been looked into, such as the effect of pleasant material against unpleasant material, degree of meaningfulness of material, situational conditions, and experiences which coincide with an individual's frame of reference

other than those which conflict with it.

These research reports on retention and others reported by Hovland, Janis and Kelby (1953), have been drawn from studies that were conducted under laboratory-type conditions with artificial incentives. While this weakness must be born in mind on making conclusions, the factors in retention may be related to the retention of learned attitudes.

In addition, Hovland's (1953:264) claim that "opinion change tends to persist even under conditions where the individual is exposed to other impressive communication . . . " does not seem to be in line with what Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962:269) hold that new situations, more creditable information and change of contact may highly influence a recently-acquired attitude.

By reason of these conflicting views about attitude retention and change, one may only make assertions about attitudes to the extent that the assertions can be supported by specific evidence from empirical research.

GROUPS IN GENERAL

Social scientists have dealt with the concept of groups to a considerable extent. In this connection, sociologists have discussed both formal and informal groups. Formal groups are everywhere in institutions such as government, church and other organizations. They are characterized by the order of hierarchy in which they align their members: formal groups also lean toward rigidity and inflexibility. One of the earliest writers and analysts of formal organization

was Max Weber, considered as the father of the study of the concept of bureaucracy. Critics of Weber's thesis have emphasized the lack of human approach in his thesis, claiming that Weber's theory treats human beings as machines. This concern has led to new schools of thinking. From these new schools of thinking the idea of informal groups has developed. Cooley's (1909) classic definition of informal groups includes such characteristics as small size, relative durability, informality, face-to-face contact and more or less specialized purpose.

Informal Group

Informal groups are of particular interest in this research, particularly in the areas of informal group membership, informal group pressure on individual members, group decisions, the influence of informal groups on the individual's attitudes, and minority groups and their automatic defence mechanism. These will be considered separately.

(a) Informal Group Membership

Thoughts about group formation seem to stem from the concept that man is a social animal and that the entire life of man is based on social organizations. Hence groups are found in all walks of life; some are close, some are loose; some are primary, some are secondary; some are large and some are small. The family is an example of a small primary group. Informal groups are characterized by free membership although studies indicate that vicinity, occupation, blood relationship and peer relationship, only to mention a few, are related to the formation of informal groups. Foreign students are apt to join groups for several reasons, including: positive attraction based on friendship and attached activities which membership makes available, as well

as a need to increase security, to fight a common enemy or threat by maintaining group membership. Schein (1970:84-85) has identified the following five functions of groups:

1. An outlet for affiliation needs, that is, needs for friendship, support and love.

2. A means of developing, enhancing or confirming a sense of identity and maintaining self-esteem.

3. A means of establishing and testing reality. Through developing consensus among group members, uncertain parts of the social environment can be made 'real' and stable. Each person can validate his own perceptions and feelings best by checking them with others.

4. A means of increasing security and a sense of power in coping with a common powerful enemy or threat . . .

5. A means of getting some job done that members need to have done such as helping out when some are sick or tired or avoiding boredom and providing stimulation to one another, or bringing new members of the organization quickly into the informal structure, and so on.

Ordinarily Afro-students, whether they form in groups where the majority of members are from their countries or anywhere else in Africa or where the majority of members are Albertans or even a mixture, will definitely seek to secure the benefits of the functions listed above. This seems to be especially true in terms of functions one and two. As a result, those Africans who are members of informal groups will place high value upon the group and will be less likely to be influenced by a communication contrary to the group norms.

(b) Minority Group and Defence Mechanisms

Students from Black Africa form one of the minority groups at the University of Alberta. As pointed out above, these individuals will tend to form or join in either formal or informal groups to procure a certain amount of security, or to protect their own interest as

in the promotion of their own identity. Bales (1950) who formulated four major dimensions of the social structure in small groups emphasized that solidarity was an important phenomenon. The question of solidarity has led researchers such as Katz and Lazarsfeld (1964:80) to look into the indications in studies that seem to confirm the contention that changing opinions and attitudes is more successful when the change is incorporated into the norm framework of a group. Smith (1969:266) reports studies by psychiatrists on people who feel threatened:

> they go about protecting themselves [by] the standard defence mechanisms of withdrawal, rationalization, and the like.

(c) Group Decision

Studies have shown that an individual member soon ceases to value individual based action and instead relies on the group value-based actions. The decision made in a group, be it by group leader or any other member, is a group's decision. To this idea Iannaccone (1964:232-34) writes,

> The group may be seen collectively as having more social power than any single group member. The social power of the individuals whose behavior most closely approximates the group norm is enhanced by these norms. The individual who speaks and acts in conformity with such group norms may be viewed as acting for the group and as supported by the power of the group, indeed, as wielding the power of the group.

Other elements show up. Group pressure to conformity is an area continually studied by social scientists. They seem to have agreed on one major finding: that the group has power over its members and that this power of the group defends all its members from outside pressure. The power of the group over its members comes from the common beliefs and common attitudes held by the majority of the

members. The group goals are centered on the common values held by the group members, and to which all members must ascribe. To this Katz and Lazarsfeld (1964:52-53) write,

> . . . studies seem to indicate that if an individual desires to attain, or maintain, an intimate relationship with others, or if he wants to 'get somewhere' either within a group or via a group, he must identify himself with the opinions and values of these others . . . we are led to expect that an individual's opinions will be substantially affected by the opinions of others whose company he keeps or whose company he aspires to keep.

(d) Groups and Individual Member Attitudes and Opinions

Empirical evidence about the homogeneity of opinions among members of the family, children and parents, was gathered by Newcomb (1943). Also, Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Gaudet (1944) found homogeneity among the political opinions of friends. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1964:49) wrote,

> . . . intimate groups of all kinds affect opinions and attitudes of their members in spheres of thought and action that often go far beyond the group's immediate concerns.

From these studies and other associated research work, focus on the norm of the group as the standard to which every member of the group is committed has been established. It can be stipulated that one basis for the identification of an individual as a member of the informal group is observation of his adherence to the latent or manifest group norms and folkways. Elsewhere in studies associated with group influence on attitudes held by the individual members there is mention of cultural certification, a point seemingly taken after the Strodtbeck (1965) studies of couples of all-round 'best' family. He found that cultural background has much to do with choices made by his subjects.

In one sense this seems to be a contradiction, or rather an indication that the subjects had not completely given up the loyalties of their cultural affiliations. The indication here illustrates the problem a foreign student faces. While a foreign student may become a member of a group whose majority members are his countrymen, it is not easy for him to completely give up his cultural position or he may choose, consciously or unconsciously, to do so temporarily. For to do otherwise he would deprive himself of group acceptance. Lasswell, Harold and Kaplan (1950) make a claim that the newcomer to the group has to change his attitudes and beliefs, even if on a temporary basis, in order to come to a consensus which the group holds.

This statement is supplemented by yet other writers. Kelly and Harold (1955) indicate that "people hold attitudes in harmony with their group membership and identification." In addition, Berelson and Steiner (1964) report that both the length of stay and the closeness to members of the host country have a tremendous influence on the immigrants (in America) acquiring new attitudes as opposed to their own native ones. It was in light of this earlier research that Hypothesis II(a) was formulated.

> It is hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between the length of stay in Canada and the amount of divergence of the African students from the established Alberta standard.

Most of these studies may be put into three categories: first, they suggest that group change is easier to bring about than the change of separate individuals. Secondly, changes brought about through groups are of a more persistent and permanent nature, and thirdly, there is firmer acceptance of the change by the individual, when the

change is encouraged through a group effect, due to participatory involvement.

Each of these three may be explained in terms of the following illustrations. The supposed greater permanence in attitude change, when accomplished by group activity, may be attributed to the notion that the individual has to live up to the group norm. Thus the decisions taken have reference to the group's collective assertion rather than an individual's suggestions. To break away from the established standard is deviance, and there are studies in group dynamics that indicate deviance may be negatively rewarded by the group. That group decisions are more effective through participation may be attributed to the fact that no member is ready to take responsibility should the change or adverse opinions seem to violate other members' expectations.

However, it could be that the individual gets satisfaction from holding different opinions than other members--indicating thus the possible usefulness of the idea or opinion. This is supported, of course, by a conviction that other members hold the same idea. Consensus and acceptability are self-explanatory in the sense that people like to live up to group norms. Kurt Lewin, quoted by Olmsted (1959:70), found this from his experience "in getting people to eat unusual foods, to increase productivity, to become less prejudiced, and so on."

Although the cited research studies have come up with the above conclusions, the group effectiveness in changing individual attitudes cannot be carried too far. For while close-knit groups may

lean in the direction of influencing the individual member, less closely bound groups (i.e., groups that have no ideological base), may be less effective in control of individual attitudes.

(e) The Group as a Target of Change

Perpetuating similar attitudes and opinions among all its members is the function of the group. Interested bodies in many institutions, schools, hospitals, and the advertising industry in general have demonstrated through various studies that groups are capable of influencing individual members toward a change of attitudes. The one simple reason is that the individual will more readily respond to an attempt to influence him if he perceives that others support him in his proposed change. Classical studies in this area, pioneered by Kurt Lewin (1952), led to three major speculations which may be viewed as facilitators of group change in norm. Firstly, when change is proposed it must appeal to more deep-lying values which are part of the group's unifying theme. Secondly, objectification of the issues which Katz and Lazarsfeld (1964) refer to as "the very use of fact-finding techniques," where individuals in a group may think of what others would do in similar situations. Third is the fact that the group is conducive to airing the emotional part of the attitude. Aspects of the role of the opinion leader seem to fit in here, too.

From this discussion it may be concluded that inter-personal reactions do not intervene in the resistance to ideas opposed to what group members share, yet at the same time shared norms which are harmonious with the outside influence do not face the resistance from the group.

PERSON TO PERSON COMMUNICATION

Opinion Leader

The concept of personal influence has been examined by relatively few social scientists, and in general has been limited to certain areas (i.e., mass communications). One of the leading investigators to pursue this area into greater depth are Elihu Katz and Paul Lazarsfeld (1969) in their book, Personal Influence. One of their basic tenets has been that of "the two-step flow of communication" and the part played by the opinion leader. Their writings report quite a number of studies, a few of which are pertinent to this particular study. Katz reported findings in Richardson (1969:258) that indicate personal influence was related to, "1. the personification of certain values (who one is); 2. competence (what one knows); 3. strategic social location (whom one knows)."

The Place of the Opinion Leader

The influence of the opinion leader, in specific terms sometimes referred to as a friend, a colleague, a playmate, a club member, member of the family, a peer or member of the same age group, has been perused further by Olmsted (1959), Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962). Their studies show that personal influence is highly contingent on the position of the influencing person, his knowledge or expertise, and the fact such a person's existence in any social strata. This emphasizes the fact that the influencing person may not be seen as an outsider to the group he influences. Hence movie "stars"

are often from the same "youth culture," as the teenagers, public affairs leadership is from the same social status, fashion leadership is related to the same female age group. This generalization seems to hold whether in specific groups or general aggregates of people.

Opinion Leader and the Flow of Information

Richardson (1969) has demonstrated through studies that the source of information to which the opinion leader has access is found in two main but general areas: first, the opinion leader himself is exposed to mass media, newspapers, books, radio and T.V.; second, the opinion leader gets information from his knowledge of subject or discipline. Put together, Richardson maintains that the opinion leader himself is well informed, although he may not be personally influenced by the information. Simpson (1953:87) found that in situations involving inter-personal discussion,

> . . . those who are most influential with others are least likely to be influenced by others, indicating that belief-strength may be greater for those possessing attitudes effective in influencing the beliefs of others.

Opinion Leader and the Kind of Information

The position the opinion leader carries in the group has been discussed in the group dynamics sections of this Chapter. However, it should be pointed out that there is a conscious or unconscious selective mechanism by the opinion leader that enables him to come to a decision as to what type of information he should transmit to his group. Earlier it was suggested that knowledge plays a part in the role of opinion leader. This means an engineering student, good at calculus,

is likely to assume the role of the opinion leader among his colleagues. Likewise a mother of four may receive greater attention among a group of mothers and expectant mothers on issues of child rearing. A graduate in developmental psychology who is also a mother, belonging to the same group, may supercede the mother of four; thus she may assume the role of the opinion leader in that area. Indeed, the concept of relative interest, attention and influence was developed as early as 1908 by psychologist James R. Angell (1908:402), who said,

> No idea can dominate our environments which does not catch and hold attention. When we keep our attention firmly fixed upon a line of conduct, to the exclusion of all competitors, our decision is already made.

Function of the Opinion Leader

Katz and Lazarsfeld (1964) have stipulated as a result of study that the function of the opinion leader is to provide personal contact and personal influence to the group. Further studies have been reported by Richardson (1964), indicating that the opinion leader's role is much facilitated by the degree of his closeness to the group. Thus married couples will tend to seek consultation within the same family. Doctors will seek advice among members of the same profession. This appears to be true among professors at universities. Slightly different observations have been made where opinion leadership results from things such as age: old to young, and to a limited extent to sex: men to women. Indeed, this does not eliminate the concept of culture discussed earlier. For instance, mothers are unlikely to influence teen-agers on the choice of movies, but the latter will influence the opposite sex of the same age group.

Closeness is, therefore, an important element in terms of influence of the opinion leader. He has greater influence in "primary group," as in families, than in formal organizations. In their book, Personal Influence, Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955:1) have quoted John Stuart Mill's On Liberty, as saying:

> And what is a still greater novelty, the mass do not now take their opinions from dignitaries in church or state, from ostensible leaders, or from books. Their thinking is done for them by men much like themselves, addressing them or speaking in their name, on the spur of the moment . . .

MASS MEDIA

It is not the intention of this research to report all that has been established in determining the most effective mass media. Rather, the purpose is to link mass media with the discussion on attitudes and opinions. Early in this chapter the reported research dealt with the question of attitude and attitude shift as related to tenure, as related to certain conditions, and as related to means. One of the established means has been identified as person to person contact: the role of a "friend" has been termed as the opinion leader. Also, the question of group involvement and similarly the consequences of group membership have been discussed. The following section is devoted to the role played by mass media, with special emphasis on television in this regard.

Campbell, Gurin and Miller (1956) found that most people named television as the most utilized source of information on matters of politics. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) found that in matters of political campaigning, personal influence was much more effective in inducing

changes than mass media. They claimed that this was due to the great flexibility of face-to-face persuasion. Katz and Lazarsfeld have extended their studies of the impact of personal influence and mass media on such personal decisions as purchase of food, goods, choice of motion pictures and fashion changes. Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962:234) reported: "In all these three types of decisions, personal influence played a greater role than did any of the mass media." On the basis of these disagreeing reports held by the two groups of researchers on the effectiveness of mass media and personal influence, Hypotheses numbers III(a) and III(b) were designed.

CONCLUSION

This Chapter has reviewed the literature. Five major areas were considered relevant to the study. The first of these was the nature of culture, values and attitudes. In this section attention was given to the emergence of attitudes as they are in major part a function of cultural values. Section two examined factors associated with the change of attitudes, considered conditions and facilitators that are related to the shift of attitudes. Emphasis was on change of social setting, where the individual is bound to acquire new tastes and a new life style that will largely comply with his new social environment. Section three: group involvement also emphasized this phenomenon. It was argued in the literature that new members involved in groups and associations of host members are bound to act in a manner that would be acceptable by the group norms.

The other two sections dealt with the way new members are brought into closer relationship with the larger society. The literature seems to favour the role played by personal communication toward influences on attitudes, and that mass media played the role of awareness.

Means of communication and involvement in groups were seen as facilitating the modification, confirmation and shift of attitudes. Notwithstanding, the literature indicated that the nature of students, unlike immigrants, did not completely allow "assimilation" or complete adaptation as students, as most students are obligated to return to their homelands. They are torn between two cultures, yet the literature indicated that they are likely to maintain the culture where they have spent most of their lifetimes.

Chapter 3

THE INSTRUMENT AND DATA COLLECTION

INTRODUCTION

The data for this research was collected by questionnaire. Other approaches were considered. The use of interview schedules, with or without tape recording, was eliminated on grounds of time and costs, in that it would have been literally impossible to approach the respondents as they don't live together. In addition, special verbal language usage problems and language misinterpretations were envisaged. Therefore, the questionnaire was selected not only for its effectiveness in collecting data as according to Goode (1966), but also due to convenience.

INSTRUMENTATION

There were three major sections in the questionnaire; these sections represented groups or clusters of items that roughly paralleled the groups of hypotheses that guided the study. Following is a brief description of each of the sections in the questionnaire. The questionnaire itself is reproduced in Appendix A.

The first section (Section A) collected personal information or biographic data. In devising this section a combination of several instruments already used was made. These included: Attitude of Indian and Non-Indian Students, Bear, R. E., M. Ed. thesis 1966, p. 68, section 52; Education Student Attitude Inventory, Ratsoy, E. W., Ph. D.

thesis 1965; Student Opinion Questionnaire, Wheatley, W. H., M.Ed. thesis 1970, p. 120; Questionnaire for Teachers Newly Arrived in Alberta, Shymoniak, L. R., M.Ed. thesis 1968; and Intergroup Relations, Hamilton, W. L., M.Ed. thesis 1966. The list consisted of age category; sex and marital status; family size; birth place; number of years in school; number of years since leaving school; major field at university; size of town raised in after the age of 15; and widely-used language of respondent's home country.

Section B: This section contained semi-personal, general questions from which the following areas of data were obtained: degree of involvement in Alberta activities through group membership, perceived cultural differences, perceived change of life style, exposure to media, previous foreign experience, work experience (home country), perceived effectiveness of orientation programmes, and perceived social pressure.

There were no specific questionnaire items borrowed from other researchers. The questions were developed after considering Weaver and Zener (1928) and Tresselt (1948), reported by Smith (1969) among others, and their work relating to practice and past working experience. In collecting information about the respondent's perceptions of changes of culture and life style, the researcher consulted Du Bois (1957) and Morris (1960). The overall guidance and pattern in devising this section was provided by the works of Christ and Cook (1952-59) and Evans (1971).

In Section C, the initial idea of identifying the ten social objects resembled that of Rockead (1968), "Rotated Factor Loadings for Change in 64 Beliefs," plus ideas gathered throughout sociology that

seemed to identify or relate to the concept of "social objects." Twenty social objects were selected and a pilot study was conducted that revealed the ten most talked of social objects. The pilot study to identify the ten social objects was restricted to Alberta students only.

It should be noted that between conducting the pilot study and the actual formulation of the instrument, several additional considerations were effected. One, the rough copy of the questionnaire was open for criticisms and recommendations before a class of research and data analysis in educational administration. Two, the researcher defended the proposal, of which the questionnaire was a part, before a committee of four professors. These two events provided useful recommendations and contributed to the final copy of the questionnaire.

DATA COLLECTION

The data for this study were obtained from the responses to the questionnaire. The instrument was sent to all Commonwealth African students supported by the Canadian International Development Agency, and studying at the University of Alberta. The list was obtained from the Canadian International Developing Agency Co-ordinator's office on condition that the list of names and addresses would be used for this purpose and this purpose only.

The same questionnaire, with the exception of Section A (considered irrevelant for the purpose of establishing Alberta mean), was administered to 200 Alberta students who had completed their

Grade 12 studies in an Alberta school, and who had reached the third year of university. This restriction of time spent in university was an attempt to come close to the age average between Albertans and Africans. This data was used to establish the Alberta mean for each of the ten social objects. The procedure followed is explained in Chapter 5 on page 61. In order to obtain responses from a variety of students in terms of faculty and subject concentration, seven centers were chosen for gathering the data of Alberta students. These were: the Education lounge, the Central Academic lunch room, V. Wing resting rooms, the Arts Building lunch room, the Biological Sciences lunch room, the Tory Building lunch room, and the Agriculture Building lunch room. The researcher and his helpers approached individual students at lunch time, and all 200 responses were gathered on the same day.

The responses from African students were received within two weeks of the date of mailing the questionnaires and 57% of the students returned completed questionnaires without reminder. Due to the difficulties discussed below a follow-up telephone call, instead of a follow-up letter, was made to each of the students to whom the questionnaire was sent. Another 13 percent returned was received within a week after the calls were made. Total returns came to 70 percent.

There were several conditions that contributed to the problem of obtaining 100 percent return of the questionnaire. First, the questionnaires were sent out during the Christmas holiday season, and the holiday activities distracted some respondents. Second, a good

number of students changed their residences during that school break. Third, a newly-established student postal system was not in service at that time. In addition, personal observation and comment of respondents led to the conclusion that some students were "fed up" with questionnaires sent by or through the Canadian Developing Agency office. Further, some discussions indicated that the purpose of the questionnaire was not clear. For example, some students felt the questionnaire was evidence of 1970 "neo-colonialism:" the authorities using African students to gather personal and privileged information. Other difficulties that contributed to the less than 100 percent return were related to the length of the questionnaires. Some students reported finding the questionnaires too long (Taylor 1951).

The follow-up procedure used was telephone contact with all to whom the questionnaires were sent. The researcher said he was telephoning everybody, regardless of whether the responses were sent back or not; in this way the question of distrust due to lack of confidentiality was avoided. In addition, the comments and observations were elicited at that time.

While the problems acknowledged above did exist, it is questionable whether elimination of the difficulties would have resulted in closer to 100 per cent return. One of the difficulties in administering questionnaires and their limitations is always the possibility of low rate of return. Kerlinger (1967:397) states, " . . . returns of less than forty to fifty per cent are common, higher percentages are rare." In this study, returns were: seventy percent for the African students and one hundred percent for the Alberta students. In the

latter case the researcher met the individual respondent; therefore, it was a different kind of one hundred percent.

ANALYSIS

The analysis of the data involved certain preliminary methodological considerations, followed by treatment of the data for the purpose of facilitating handling, and finally by the data analysis.

Preliminary Treatment

Completed questionnaires were coded and each respondent's scores were punched on I.B.M. cards. One complete card was punched for each respondent, both Africans and Albertans. Identification numbers were assigned, viz: 1 - 200 for Albertans and 500 - 567 for the Africans. Characteristics of populations of both Alberta and African students were developed, and are reported in the Tables.

Several types of statistical treatments were used. First, the variables were divided according to levels of measurement achieved into continuous and dichotomous variables.

Level of Significance

The *a priori* level of significance was set at 0.05 for all tests except for Hypothesis 1(a),

> There is no significant relationship between age of the African students and the difference from the Alberta standard.

which was set at 0.01 due to strong theoretical evidence in support of that hypothesis. While this *a priori* level was used to formally reject or accept Hypotheses, the actual results and the associated probabilities

were considered and reported.

Sub-groups

In the comparisons involving sub-groups, definitions of categories and classifications were devised that used the information reported on the questionnaire and adequately described the groups. This was an attempt to provide meaningful divisions of members to make comparisons possible. The sub-groups were as follows: Age groups were reduced to: under 25, over 25 and below 35; over 35. Grouping based on Travel Experience were established: travelled; and little or no travel experience. The following categories for Time Spent in Canada were established: less than 4 months; 5 - 16 months; 17 and over months. When considering the problem of Languages Widely Spoken, three categories were used: English, Swahili, and any other. Work Experience information was categorized as follows: total working experience: less than 8 years; more than 8 years; government employees; non-government employees; and no prior employment. Another subdivision was: extensive government experience vs. no government experience. The information related to a Group Membership was established as formal group membership and informal group membership. Another description of group membership used the following sub-groups: groups with most Alberta student members; and groups with most African student members and mixed members. Family Size was considered as a three-fold grouping: 1 to 2 in the family; 3 to 4 members; 5 and over 5 members. Information about Size of Home City was classified into two groups as: less than 200,000 and

200,000 and over. Marital Status was placed into two categories: married and single (unmarried) and single (excluding divorcees). The information about Time Spent Out of School was considered in terms of the following: less than 1 year; 1 to 5 years; 6 to 7 years, 7 and over years. University Level: less than 5 years, and over 3 years. Perceptions of Differences in Cultural Background: the following categories were established; culture perceived as different and perceived as similar to any other African culture. Life Style Change: the following categories were established; more information and time spent in Alberta. Perceptions of Giving up and not Giving up Aspects of Culture: the following categories were established; seeing themselves giving up culture, not seeing themselves giving up culture. Perceptions toward new values: divisions were; no change perceived and change perceived. Distributions by Awareness of Social Pressure: the following categories were established; conformity, no notice at all, and fighting social pressure. Perceptions of Orientation Programmes: the following categories were established; met aims and did not meet aims. Most effective means of Information: categories were: T.V., Radio, Newspapers and Magazines, friend and orientation programmes.

The response frequency for each of these subdivisions is indicated in the appropriate Table in Chapter 4, and the original response frequencies may be obtained from Appendix B.

SUMMARY

This Chapter described the methodology involved in the study. The nature of the instrument was described and the administration of the data was discussed. Finally, the analysis was discussed. This included initial considerations and the statistical approaches employed.

Chapter 4

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives a concise description of the data gathered from African respondents. It will be noted that the number of respondents for each of the variables is not constant, the reason being some respondents did not reply to all questions

Africans: Of the sixty-seven African students who returned the questionnaire, 2 were Zambians, 24 Tanzanians, 7 Ugandans, 3 Kenyans, 22 Nigerians, and 8 Ghanaians. Table 1 summarizes the distributions of respondents by their countries of origin and citizenship.

Age: The greater number of respondents fall into the last of the three categories: age groups of over 35 years of age. There were 35 respondents in this group. The other two age groups (less than 25, and 25 to 35 years of age) had 16 respondents in each of the groups. Table 2 summarizes these respondents' age categories.

Marital Status: Table 3 shows the distributions of respondents by marital status. 46 respondents were married, 19 were single respondents and 2 divorcees.

Family Size in 1969: Table 4 shows groups of respondents according to the size of the families in 1969. Eight respondents lived with two people, 36 respondents reported families of three to four;

Table 1

Distributions of Respondents by
Country of Origin

Country	Number of Respondents		Per Cent
	Total Population on Campus	Respondents	
Ghana	9	8	12.0
Kenya	3	3	4.5
Nigeria	33	22	32.5
Tanzania	39	24	35.5
Uganda	7	7	10.0
Zambia	2	3	5.5
TOTAL	93	67	100.0

Table 2

Distribution of African Respondents
By Age

Age in Years	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
25 and under	16	23.9
Over 25 and below 35	16	23.9
Over 35	35	52.2
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 3

Distribution of African Respondents
By Marital Status

Marital Status	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Married	46	68.7
Single (unmarried)	19	28.3
Single (divorcees)	2	3.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 4

Distribution of African Respondents
By Family Size in 1968

Number of People in the Family	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
1 - 2	8	11.9
3 - 4	36	53.8
5 and Over 5	21	31.3
No Response	2	3.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

21 respondents came from families of five to six people; and two of the respondents did not indicate their family size.

Time Spent Out of School: Table 5 summarizes distributions of respondents by the number of years they spent out of school prior to joining the University of Alberta. 39 respondents had been out of school for one to five years. 24 respondents had been out of school for seven or more years. There were no responses from four of the respondents.

Time Spent in Alberta: Table 6 gives a summary of distributions of respondents according to the time spent in Alberta. There were 33 respondents who had been in Alberta for less than four months; 20 respondents had been in Alberta from five to sixteen months; 12 respondents had been in Alberta over seventeen months; and there were no responses from two of the Africans.

Time Spent in any University: 32 respondents had been in university for less than three years; 31 respondents had been in universities for over three years; and there were no responses from four respondents. Table 7 summarizes these distributions.

Size of Town after 15th Birthday: Table 8 gives a summary of distributions of respondents according to the size of the towns in which respondents had spent most of their time after the age of fifteen. 33 respondents grew up in towns of less than 200,000 and 34 respondents indicated they spent most of their lives in towns of over 200,000 population.

Table 5

Distribution of African Respondents
By The Time Spent Out of School

Time by Years	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Less than one year	0	
1 - 5	39	58.2
6 - 7	0	
7 and over 7	24	35.8
No Response	4	6.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 6

Distribution of African Respondents
By The Time They Spent in Canada

Time in Months	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Up to 4 months	33	49.2
5 to 16 months	20	29.8
17 and over 17 months	12	18.0
No Response	2	3.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 7

Distribution of African Respondents
By The Time Spent in University

Number of Years in University	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Less than 3 years	32	47.8
Over 3 years	31	46.4
No response	4	5.8
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 8

Distribution of African Respondents
According to the Size of Town
After 15th Birthday

Size of City/Town by Population	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
To 200,000	33	49.3
Over 200,000	34	50.7
TOTAL	67	100.0

Working Experience: Table 9 summarizes distributions of respondents as per previous working experience prior to joining the University of Alberta. 41 respondents worked for less than eight years or did not work at all, and 26 respondents worked for more than eight years.

Working Experience (Government - Non-Government): Table 10 summarizes distributions of respondents according to working experience in government and non-government services. 33 respondents worked in government services, and 19 respondents worked in non-government services.

Extensive and Less Extensive Government Working Experience: Table 11 summarizes distributions of respondents by long and short-term or no government experience. 29 respondents worked for government for five or more years. 38 worked for less than five years or did not work for the government at all.

Extensive Government and Extensive Non-Government Working Experience: 22 respondents worked for the government for eight or more years. Six respondents reported extensive non-government work experience, eight or more years. 39 respondents did not fall into these categories. Table 12 summarizes distributions of respondents reporting extensive government and extensive non-government working experience.

Amount of Non-Government Working Experience: Table 13 summarizes distributions of respondents by non-government working experience. 11 respondents worked for five or more years. 56 respondents worked for less than five years or not at all.

Table 9

Distribution of African Respondents
By Total Working Experience

Total Experience	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Less than 8 years	41	61.2
More than 8 years	26	38.8
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 10

Distribution of African Respondents
By Government and Non-Government
Working Experience

Worked for Whom	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Government	33	63.5
Non-Government	19	36.5
TOTAL	52	100.0

Table 11

Distribution of African Respondents
By Extensive and Less Extensive
Government Working Experience

Government Experience	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Extensive government experience 5 or more than 5 years	29	43.3
Less extensive government experience - less than 5 years	38	56.7
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 12

Distribution of African Respondents
By Extensive Government and
Extensive Non-Government
Working Experience (8 Years)

Kind of Experience	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Extensive government experience	22	32.8
Extensive non-government experience	6	8.5
Other categories	39	57.7
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 13

Distribution of African Respondents
By Amount of Non-Government
Working Experience

Working Term	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Long - 5 or more years of working experience	11	16.41
Short - less than 5 years or no working experience at all	56	83.58
TOTAL	67	100.0

Widely-Spoken Language: 23 of the responses indicated English as the widely-spoken language; 29 indicated Swahili; 12 indicated a variety of languages including Ganda; and there were no responses from three respondents. Table 14 gives the summary of these distributions.

Travel Experience: Table 15 summarizes distributions of respondents by previous foreign travel experience. Twenty respondents indicated that they have had travel experience. 47 have had less than three months' travel experience or no experience at all.

Group Membership: Table 16 shows distributions by group membership. Five respondents were in groups whose majority of members were Albertans. Fourteen respondents were members in groups whose majority are basically African, and twelve respondents were in groups whose members are mixed: Albertans, Africans and any other.

Perceptions of Difference of Culture: Distributions of African respondents according to cultural background as perceived as similar or different from Albertans and as similar or different from any other African culture are shown in Table 17. 17 perceived their cultures different. 42 said they were like any other African culture. Eight of the respondents did not indicate anything.

Perception of Change of Life Style: Table 18 shows distributions according to perceptions of change of life style. 32 respondents perceived change of life style as related to more information. 29 related perceived change of culture to time spent in Alberta. There were no responses from six of the respondents.

Table 14

Distribution of African Respondents
By Most Widely Spoken Language

Language Groups	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
English	23	34.0
Swahili	29	43.2
Any other	12	18.0
No response	3	4.8
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 15

Distribution of African Respondents
By Foreign Travel Experience

Travel Experience No Travel Experience	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Travelled	20	30.0
Not travelled	47	70.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 16

Distribution of African Respondents
By Group Membership

Kind of Groups	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Mostly Albertans	5	7.5
Mostly Africans	14	20.5
Mixed members	12	18.0
No response	36	54.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 17

Distribution of African Respondents
By Perceptions of Differences
in Cultural Background

Perception of Kind of Culture	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Culture perceived as different from any other culture	17	25.4
Perceived as similar to African other than own country	42	62.6
No response	8	12.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 18

Distribution of African Respondents
By Life Style Change Perceptions

Perceived 'Reasons'	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
More information	32	48.0
Time spent in Alberta	29	43.0
No response	6	9.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Perception of Giving Up Culture: Table 19 shows the distribution of respondents by their perceptions as to whether or not they see themselves giving up some aspects of culture. 32 admitted, 31 did not, and there were no responses from four respondents.

Perceptions of New Values: Summaries of distributions of respondents according to perceptions of whether or not they have acquired new values are shown in Table 20. 32 perceived no changes in values, 29 perceived change in values and there were no responses from six of the respondents.

Perceptions of Awareness to Social Pressure: Table 21 summarizes distributions of respondents by perceived social pressure and social pressure drives. 14 of the respondents did not notice social pressure. 18 noticed social pressure and felt need to conform. The other 26 respondents noticed social pressure but fought it in one way or another. There were no responses from nine of the students.

Perceived Aims of Orientation Programmes: Table 22 summarizes distributions of respondents by their perceptions of the aims of the orientation. Nineteen said orientation programmes met the aim; seventeen said no. There were no responses from 31 people.

Perceived Most Effective Means of Information: Table 23 gives a summary of distributions of African respondents as they perceive the most effective means of information. Twelve chose T.V., five chose radio, nine indicated newspapers and magazines, nineteen chose a friend, four chose orientation programmes and there were no responses from 18 of the respondents.

Table 19

Distribution of African Respondents
By Perceptions of Giving Up
Or Not Giving Up
Aspects of Culture

Perceptions	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
See themselves giving up culture	32	47.8
Do not see themselves giving up culture	31	46.2
No response	4	6.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 20

Distribution of African Respondents
By Perceptions of New Values

Change of Values	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
No change perceived	32	47.8
Change perceived	29	43.2
No response	6	9.0
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 21

Distribution of African Respondents
By Awareness of Social Pressure

Social Pressure Leads To	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Conformity	18	26.9
No notice at all	14	20.9
Fighting it	26	38.8
No response	9	13.4
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 22

Distribution of African Respondents
By Perceptions of Orientation
Programmes

Satisfaction	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Met aim	19	28.3
Didn't meet aim	17	25.3
No response	31	46.4
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 23

Distribution of African Respondents
By Perceived Most Effective Means of
Information of Alberta Way of Life

News Media	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Television	12	18.0
Radio	5	7.5
Newspaper and magazines	9	13.4
A friend	19	28.3
Orientation programmes	4	6.0
No response	18	26.8
TOTAL	67	100.0

CONCLUSION

Chapter 4 has shown the distributions of African respondents by various demographic data, and it has also shown the distributions of other variables as they appear in the questionnaire.

Chapter 5

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present an analysis of the data. It includes a description of findings from each of the hypotheses tested and a discussion of those findings. All the hypotheses, except hypotheses III(a) and III(b), were tested by the analysis of variance techniques considered a valid method of identifying significant differences between the mean values.

The Alberta student score formed the basis for determining the deviation of African students. A computation of the African individual score on each of the social items was made. The Alberta student mean score on those social items was also established. The range of deviations varied from 0 to 22. The absolute value of the Alberta mean was set at 0 from which dispersions were identified for each of the African respondents on each of the ten social items.

For hypotheses III(a) and III(b) a test of significance between sample proportions on communication media was calculated.

Hypothesis I(a): There is no significant relationship between age of the African students and the difference from Alberta mean. The result of the test indicated that there was no significant difference between the means at 0.05 level of significance, as indicated in Table 24. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. A variation

Table 24

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Age

Age in Years	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Up to 25	16	6.92	4.77	0.60*	0.551
Up to 35	16	7.25	5.44		
Over 35	35	5.89	3.97		
TOTAL	67	6.46	4.48		

*with 2 and 62 degrees of freedom.

in mean scores for the three groups indicated a trend for the respondents over 35 years of age to respond closer to Alberta standard.

Hypothesis 1(b): There is no significant relationship between the marital status of African students and their difference from the Alberta mean.

The null hypothesis was rejected at point 0.05 level of significance. This means that there is a relationship between marital status of the African students and the deviations from the Alberta mean as Table 25 presents the results of the test. Single respondents with a mean score of 4.74 indicated close responses to the Canadian standard when contrasted to married respondents with a mean score of 6.95.

Table 25

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Marital Status

Marital Status	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Single	19	4.74	3.25	3.28*	0.074
Married	48	6.95	4.89		
TOTAL	67	6.32	4.53		

*with 2 and 62 degrees of freedom

Hypothesis 1(c): There is no significant relationship between time the African students have spent in university and their difference from the Alberta students.

As seen in Table 26 the "F" value did not reach 0.05 level of probability for the established classifications; therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 26

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Time Spent in University

Number of University Years	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Less than 3 yrs.	32	6.70	4.65	0.10	0.751
More than 3 yrs.	31	6.33	4.55		
TOTAL	63	6.51	4.53		

Hypothesis 1(d): There is no significant relationship between African students' awareness of differences of culture and their difference from Alberta standard.

The result of the test indicated that there is no significant difference between the means of classifications at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. Table 27 presents the results of the statistical test.

Table 27

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Perceptions of Awareness of Difference in Culture

Categories	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Culture is different	17	4.69	3.27	2.82	
Culture is similar to other Africans	42	6.83	4.79		0.098
TOTAL	59	6.21	4.45		

Hypothesis 1(e): The African students who perceive their life style to have changed since coming to Canada will differ no less or no more from the Alberta mean than those African students who perceive no change.

Table 28 presents the results of the statistical test which indicates no significant difference between means at 0.05 level of

significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. The trend indicated by the mean score of 5.77 for those who perceive change of life style as against 6.84 who perceive no change, places the former group closer to Albertans.

Table 28

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Perceptions of Change or No Change in Life Style

Categories	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Perceive change: more information	32	5.77	15.97		
				0.84	0.368
Perceive change: more time in Alberta	29	6.84	27.34		
TOTAL	61	6.28	20.95		

Hypothesis 1(f): There is no significant relationship between the size of the African student family and the difference from the Alberta standard.

The results of the test indicated that there was no significant difference between the means at 0.05 level of significance; therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. As Table 29 shows the trend indicated that African students who came from smaller families: 1 to 2

members of the family in 1969, were closer to Alberta student standard responses.

Table 29

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Family Size as of 1969

Family Size	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
1 - 2	8	5.93	2.42		
3 - 4	36	6.32	4.83	0.03	0.973
Over 5	21	6.32	4.33		
TOTAL	65	6.27	4.35		

Hypothesis 1(g): There is no significant relationship between African students' widely-spoken language and their difference from the Alberta mean.

The results of the test as presented in Table 30 indicate there was no significant difference between the means at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis 1(g) was accepted. However, an observable trend from the referred Table indicates that African respondents who perceived English as the widely-spoken language tended to be closer to the established Alberta standard.

Table 30

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to the Most Widely Spoken Language

Language	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
English	23	5.78	16.46		
Swahili	29	6.49	22.94	1.43	0.248
Any other	12	8.48	21.81		
TOTAL	64	6.61	20.35		

Hypothesis 1(h): There is no significant relationship between orientation programmes and the differences the African students have from the Alberta students' standard score.

The results of the test as presented in Table 31 indicated there was no significant difference between the means at the 0.05 level of significance. There is no significant relationship between orientation programmes and the deviations from the established Alberta standard. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. An observable trend indicated, however, that those African students who perceive orientation programmes as failing to meet their aims have a mean score of 5.86 as against a mean of 7.16 for the other group, indicating, therefore, a closer trend to Alberta standard.

Table 31

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Their Perception of the Function of Orientation Programmes

Perceptions	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Orientations meet aims	19	7.16	5.41	0.69	0.412
Orientations do not meet aims	17	5.86	3.78		
TOTAL	36	6.55	4.65		

Hypothesis 11(a): There is no significant relationship between the length of stay in Canada and the amount of divergence of the African students from the established Alberta standard.

The result of the test indicated there was no significant difference from the mean at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. This means there is no significant relationship between the time African students have spent in Canada and their deviations from the Alberta norm. Table 32 presents the results of the statistical test; although the trend indicated by the mean value tends to indicate that respondents who had stayed in Canada for four months were closer in responses to the Canadian standard as indicated by the mean score of 5.59, compared to the mean score of 8.71 for the respondents who stayed for 28 months.

This trend regressed to the mean score of 7.42 for the students who had stayed for more than 28 months.

Table 32

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to the Length of Stay in Canada

Time Spent In Alberta	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
1 - 4 months	33	5.59	4.33		
5 -16 months	20	6.79	4.46	1.01	0.393
16 -28 months	6	8.71	6.95		
More than 28 months	6	7.42	3.16		
TOTAL	65	6.41	4.52		

Hypothesis 11(b): African students who belong to groups with predominantly Alberta members will differ no less or no more from the Alberta standard that African students who belong to groups with predominantly African members.

Table 33 presents the results of the statistical test, which shows there was no significant difference between the means of the established groups at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 33

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Their Group Membership

Type of Group	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Mostly Alberta student members	5	5.62	4.30	0.12	0.889
Mostly African student members	14	6.82	5.54		
Mixed: Albertans, Africans and any other	12	6.96	5.47		
	31	6.68	5.11		

Hypothesis 11(c):

(i) There is no significant relationship between working experience and deviation of Africans from Alberta standard. The result of the test showed that there was a significant difference between the mean at 0.05 level of significance, therefore, the hypothesis was rejected. Table 34^{a} summarizes the result of the statistical test.

This result of significance led to further testing of the groups under working experience.

(ii) There is no significant relationship between government and non-government working experience and the deviations of Africans from the Alberta standard. As Table 34^{b} shows, the result of the test rejected the hypothesis at 0.05 level of significance.

(iii) There is no significant relationship between extensive and less extensive working experience and the deviations for the Alberta standard. The hypothesis was rejected at the 0.05 level of significance, indicating that the extensive working experience group score was further away from the Alberta standard than the less extensive government working experience. Table 35 summarizes the result of the statistical test.

(iv) There is no significant relationship between extensive government working experience and extensive non-government working experience, and the deviations from Alberta standard. The results of the statistical test as presented in Table 36 indicated that differences in means existed at the 0.05 level of significance, therefore leading to the rejection of the hypothesis.

Table 34[a]

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Working and No Working Experience

Categories	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Working experience of 8 years	26	7.99	5.09	5.18	0.026
Without working experience - no experience at all	41	5.49	3.87		
TOTAL	67	6.46	4.482		

Table 34[b]

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students
Group Means According to
Government and Non-Government Working Experience

Working Experience	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Government experience	33	8.18	5.17	10.25	0.002
Non-Government experience	19	4.06	2.80		
TOTAL	52	6.67	4.81		

Table 35

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students
Group Means According to Extensive Government and Less Extensive
Government Working Experience

Experience	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Extensive government experience (over 3 years)	28	8.25	25.58	9.04	0.003
Less extensive government experience (less than 3 years)	38	5.09	12.57		
TOTAL	67	6.46	20.08		

Table 36

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Extensive Government and Extensive Non-Government Experience

Type of Experience	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Extensive government experience (5 years)	22	8.66	5.55	4.88	0.036
Extensive non-government experience (5 yrs.)	6	3.46	2.67		
TOTAL	28	6.67	4.81		

Hypothesis II(d): African students who spent most of their lives in big towns will deviate no less or no more from Alberta standard than African students of the rural background.

Table 37 presents the results of the statistical test. The result of the test indicated there was no significant difference between the means at 0.05 level of significance, therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

This means there is no significant relationship between the size of the towns the African students spent most of their lives in after their 15th birthday and the differences from the Alberta standard..

Table 37

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to the Size of Town Raised in After the 15th Birthday

Size of Town	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Less than 200,000	33	6.56	4.03	0.03	0.866
More than 200,000	34	6.37	4.99		
TOTAL	67	6.46	4.48		

Hypothesis II(e): African students who have had extensive foreign travel experience will differ less from the Alberta students, than African students who have had little or no foreign travel experience.

Table 38 shows the results of the statistical test. From this result the test indicated there was significant difference between the means at 0.05 level of significance. The hypothesis was rejected. Close examination of the test indicates that African students who have extensive foreign travel experience differ more significantly from the Alberta norm than African students who have had little or no foreign travel at all.

Table 38

An Analysis of Variance Between African Students Group Means According to Previous Foreign Travel Experience

Categories	Number	Mean	S. Dev.	F.	P.
Previous travel experience	20	8.16	27.43	4.24	0.043
No previous travel experience	47	5.74	16.13		
TOTAL	67	6.46	20.08		

Hypothesis III(a): Of the formal media, T.V. is perceived as having a more significant relationship with information in matters of opinions and attitudes than radio, newspapers and magazines.

The result of the x^2 Test indicated no significant difference between sample proportions at 0.05 levels of significance; therefore, the hypothesis was rejected. Table 39 summarizes the result of the test.

Table 39

An x^2 Test of Significance Between Sample Proportions of the Communication media most Informative of the Alberta Way of Life

Media	Response	No Response	Total
T.V.	12	20	32
Expected frequency	(12.42)	(19.58)	
Other forms of news media	14	21	35
Expected frequency	(13.58)	(21.42)	
TOTAL	26	41	67

$x^2 = 0.0443 < x^2\ 0.05,\ 1 = 3.841$

Hypothesis III(b): The 'opinion leader' is perceived to have a greater impact of information in matters of opinions and attitudes than any other information media.

A x^2 test of significance between sample proportions formal-media and other forms indicated that respondents did not regard the two as equally informative. Therefore the hypothesis was accepted.

Table 40

A Test of Significance Between Sample Proportions of Communication Media Respondents Would Advise, For the Use of a Newcomer, Looking for Information

Media	Response	No Response	Total
Formal media	10	9	19
Expected Frequency	(13.9)	(5.1)	
Informal media	39	9	48
Expected frequency	(35.1)	(12.9)	
TOTAL	49	18	67

$x^2 = 5.6888 \geq x^2 = 0.05, 1 = 3841$

SUMMARY

In this chapter an analysis of the data with respect to each of the hypotheses of the study has been presented. Significant differences of means were found among the African students when grouped only according to marital status, awareness of differences in culture, previous working experience, previous travel experience, and the choice of communication media - personal communication.

Chapter 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This Chapter presents an overview of the entire study. First, the study is briefly summarized. Second, a number of conclusions are drawn from the findings of the study. Third, implications in the nature of suggestions for further research in the area of attitudes amopg African students are made.

I. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The Problem

The present study was concerned with these probables:

1. Whether or not African students from Commonwealth Africa perceive the social objects or items in the same way their counterpart Alberta students do.
2. What determinants might be related to the deviations between the African students and the Alberta established standard?

The Instrument

The instrument by means of which the data were obtained was a three-part questionnaire designed by the researcher. The three parts were: the section on biographic data, the section on additional information based on the individual's experiences, and the ten social items. The ten social items were put on a five point scale of measurement from which the Alberta mean was established. While Section one of the instrument was derived from other sources

as indicated in Chapter one, methods of constructing section three were based on Lockeach's list of social items. The ten social items were selected on the basis of the merit list obtained from a pilot study; and on the recommendation of the four professors who sat on the oral examination for the defense of the thesis proposal. Section two was the researcher's invention but mainly based on some of the literature in this area of attitude and attitude formation, as Chapter two indicates.

The Sample of the Data

The African students involved in the study were those Africans registered at the University of Alberta. Two further factors were imposed on the selection of the study sample, namely:

1. The African sample was limited to those individuals who were citizens of the Commonwealth African countries.
2. It was limited to individuals who were under the auspices of the Canadian International Development Agency. The study aimed at 96 students, and 67 questionnaires were returned.

The Alberta sample consisted of those Canadian students who had reached a third year of university level, and who completed high school in Alberta. The questionnaires were distributed over to and collected from 200 students at seven of the established centers on campus. Each student completed and returned the questionnaire while at the center and, therefore, one hundred percent return was secured.

Method of Data Analysis

Analysis of variances was used in all tests of hypotheses, except for hypotheses III(A) and III(b), where the $\bar{z}$ test of comparison of sample proportions was used. For all analyses the 0.05 level of significance was used. In the case of hypotheses I(d) and I(e) involving perceptions of differences in cultural background between the Africans and Albertans, the available rigorous support of the literature seemed to justify a lower or higher level of significance, hence, the 0.10 level of significance was used.

Results

Seven of the hypotheses were tested by the analysis of variance, and two of the hypotheses were tested by a $\bar{z}$ test of significance between sample proportions, and the results were as follows:

Hypothesis I(a): There is no significant relationship between age of African students and their difference from the Alberta standard. The null hypothesis was accepted at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis I(b): There is no significant relationship between marital status of African students and their difference from the Alberta standard. The hypothesis was rejected at 0.05. However, an analysis of the data revealed that unmarried respondents were closer to Alberta student responses than the married students.

Hypothesis I(c): There is no significant relationship between time the African students have spent in university and the amount of time given from the Alberta mean. This hypothesis was accepted at 0.05.

Hypothesis I(d): There is no significant relationship between African students' awareness of differences in culture and their deviations from the Alberta standard. This hypothesis was accepted at 0.05.

Hypothesis I(e): The African students who perceive their life style as being changed since coming to Canada will differ no less or no more from the Alberta mean than those African students who perceive no change. This hypothesis was accepted at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis I(f): There is no significant relationship between the size of the African student family and the difference Africans have from the Alberta mean. This null hypothesis was accepted at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis I(g): There is no significant relationship between African students' widely spoken language and their differences from the Alberta mean. This hypothesis was accepted at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis I(h): There is no significant relationship between perception of the orientation programmes and the differences the African students have from Alberta students' standard score. No significant difference in means was found, therefore the hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis II(a): There is no significant relationship between the length of stay in Canada and the amount of time given of the African students from the Alberta mean. This was accepted at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis II(b): African students who belong to groups with predominantly Alberta members will differ no less or no more from the Alberta mean than African students who belong to groups with predominantly African members. The hypothesis was accepted at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis II(c):

(i) There is no significant relationship between working experience and the deviation of African students from the Alberta mean. The hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 level of significance.

(ii) There is no significant relationship between government and non-government working experience and the deviations of Africans from the Alberta mean. This was rejected at 0.05 level of significance.

(iii) There is no significant relationship between extensive and less extensive working experience and the deviations from the Alberta mean. The hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 level of significance.

(iv) There is no significant relationship between extensive government working experience and extensive non-government working experience, and the deviation from the Alberta standard. This hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis II(d): African students who spent most of their lives in big towns will deviate no less or no more from the Alberta standard than African students of a rural background. This hypothesis was accepted at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis II(e): African students who have had extensive foreign travel experience will differ less from the Alberta standard

than African students who have had little or no foreign travel experience. This hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis III(a): Of the formal media, T.V. is perceived as having a more significant relationship with information in matters of opinions and attitudes than radio, newspapers and magazines. This hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis III(b): The 'Opinion Leader' is perceived to have a greater impact of information in matters of opinions and attitudes than any other information media. The hypothesis was accepted at 0.05 level of significance.

II. CONCLUSIONS

This study dealt with African students' attitudes toward the ten related social items and their degree of differences from the established Alberta standard.

On the basis of the results, it would appear that in the present sample, the following conclusions are valid.

1. African students who have had foreign travel experience appeared to indicate greater deviations from the mean of Alberta students than those African students who had had little or no travel experience at all.
2. African students who have had working experience with their own governments before joining the University of Alberta seemed to indicate greater deviations from the Alberta standard than those African students who have had little or no experience at all, or

those who have had working experience other than working for the government.

3. There seemed to be an indication that the African students who have spent more than two years in Canada appear to have greater deviations than those African students who have spent a relatively short time: less than four months in Canada. Also, this tendency of greater deviations from the Alberta mean was observed among the students who have stayed in Canada longer than two years, to regress at a certain time. That is to say, after a certain time, say 20 months, the deviation becomes smaller than at two years but still greater than at four months.
4. Any other variable indicated certain tendencies and although they were not statistically significant, it is worth while to note the indications.
5. It was indicated by this study that personal communication was perceived more effective than any other means of communication.

III. IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the present study support some hypotheses, as in the cases of foreign travel experience, prior University of Alberta entry working experience, family size, perceived influence of the opinion leader, the perception of change of life style. A number of hypotheses have not been supported as in the case of time spent in Canada, group involvement, widely spoken language, awareness of difference in culture, marital status, home town size, and the per-

ception of T.V.'s influence.

Even though the hypotheses were not rejected, the trends indicated by statistical results, particularly where those trends depict the other direction as against the supporting literature in this field, present an interesting and important scene that leads to the following discussion.

Some of the supported hypotheses, such as those of working experience and perceived awareness of change of life style, are also supported by the literature as reported in Chapter 2. The only hypothesis unsupported by the literature is that of travel experience. According to Smith (1969) people who have had foreign travel experience will tend to remain close to the host country citizens, much more so than those people who have had no foreign travel experience. This was found among the East Indians, the Japanese and the Swedish students studying in the United States. Results obtained through the analysis of variance for the African students with foreign travel experience did not support the results of the American studies. Not only is an attempt to establish any assumptions difficult but one can only stipulate what the literature emphasizes: differences of culture for one thing and differences in the 'type' of students tested. The latter argument is strengthened by the supportive results of the test to students with government working experience who showed a larger deviation from the Alberta mean. Further speculations may be made in that the East Indians, the Japanese and the Swedish students represent their nations while the African students tested were of a

variety of nationalities to say nothing of their differing states. Parsin and Bennet (1954) emphasize the point of differences in culture that "the wider the cultural gap to be bridged - the more difficult the task of cross-cultural adjustment." They found out that Scandinavians adjusted themselves much more quickly in America than the Japanese.

Hypothesis III(a), which states that of the formal media, T.V. is perceived as having a more significant relationship with information in matters of opinions and attitudes than radio, newspapers and magazines, was rejected. Prior research, as reported in the literature revue, supported this hypothesis, Richardson (1969). While one ought to be careful in formulating certain assumptions, it may be that a large number of African respondents do not perceive the T.V. as an important mass media because they have no easy access to T.V.

Hypothesis II(d), which states that African students who spent most of their lives in a big town will deviate no less or no more from the Alberta standard than African students of the rural background, was accepted. This indicates no difference, in this particular variable, of rural and urban life. Again the findings present an interesting scene. The literature and common sense observations comparing town and country life would predict some difference. Demographers have extensively written and made studies that show there is marked rural to urban migration in the developing countries due to the more attractive urban life. Even though this has been emphasized, at least one important statement of rural-urban relationship in African countries has not been considered. For instance, a large number of

present generation African urbanites have not completely cut their ties with rural life. They still have relatives and even possessions in rural areas. In one district in Tanzania of which the writer is aware, it is considered inappropriate for one not to have a home in the rural areas of that district, even though one might be working and living in a big city several hundred kilometers from one's native district. Native tongues are spoken in big towns; even in those towns where the lingua franca or an official and business language is well established. All this is an indication of less distinct so-called town life.

Observable trends of hypothesis I(b), marital status; I(a), age; I(g), widely spoken language and I(h) orientation programmes are also interesting. Single students responded closer to the Alberta standard. One may propose that less family ties may have some influence in the way single students responded. Studies as reported by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1969) indicate the power of the family. Students may have fewer ties back home. This is interesting indeed, for single students were generally younger, yet hypothesis I(a) on age indicated that older students were closer to the Alberta norm.

Students who perceived English as the widely spoken language in their countries responded closer to the Alberta mean, as the literature also supports. Language being an important element of the whole culture, this finding is not surprising.

Some variations in terms of directional trend were observed under hypothesis I(h) - orientation programmes. Students who per-

ceived orientation programmes at the University of Alberta as failing to meet the intended purpose responded closer to the Alberta mean. These students have participated in orientation programmes during their early stay in Alberta. They indicated that some of the items in the orientation week could be left to the individual students to find out from friends. Their position argued that such items were far too general to present a meaningful picture, and that they got more help and information through their host students. This is fully supported by the literature referred to in Chapter 2.

Although it was reported earlier that hypothesis I(e) on the perception of change in life style showed no significant difference, this trend indicated that those students aware of change of life style from their own life style to the Alberta life style, responded closer to the Alberta mean. The implication here might be that there may be a deliberate attempt, at least temporarily, to come closer to the Alberta way of life, for certain purposes.

The most controversial unsupported hypothesis was that of time spent in Canada. Only trends showed that newly-arrived students (those with less than four months in Canada) responded closer to the Alberta mean. And there was a shift indicated by statistical result which showed that as time goes on, up to a certain point, African students tend to differ greatly from the Alberta students. Then there is a very slight, almost insignificant regressing trend that shows that after that period, from four months to about 28 months, responses were drawing closer together. Students who have stayed for more than 28 months were represented by a small number, 12 out

of the 65 respondents.

Although it is difficult to account for this trend, one possible explanation might be illustrated by hypothesizing an imaginary case history. Suppose an African student arrives in Canada with a high regard for Canadian foreign aid programmes, an attitude which does not deviate from the "Alberta mean" on this topic. His initial high regard probably stems from the fact that he is one of a select few beneficiaries of Canadian foreign aid. After his short stay in Alberta, his attitude begins to diverge from the Alberta mean - he grows cynical as he observes that (at least in his case) the foreign aid money is spent in Canada, and that he has no immediate personal gains. But over a period of time, his attitude begins to approach the Alberta mean again - perhaps he receives new information, perhaps that his counterpart Albertans receive loans and grants to which they have no immediate gains. For a busy foreign student time is required to reach the third stage of this illustration.

Any attempt to account for the above apparent trend, however, must be qualified by a reminder that this study was cross-sectional rather than longitudinal, and that as such the "trend" could be coincidental rather than actual.

All the above findings, both the significant ones and those that are indicated by mere trends, may have different implications for different groups of individuals interested in African students studying at the University of Alberta.

Implications for African Educational Institutions

This study has indicated that African students studying abroad may not necessarily detach themselves from their own cultural background, acquiring new attitudes and opinions which may appear not relevant to their countries' policies. On the contrary, it has been indicated that foreign travel experience and prior government working experience stand a chance to intensify the students' original attitudes and values. It would appear that those who have had no chance to work for their governments should be aware of the nation's policies, through attending seminars perhaps, before they go abroad.

Implications for those who make Programmes for African Students to Study in Foreign Institutions

This study has indicated no basis for a fear that during the course of his study in foreign institutions, the African student who is fully supported by his home government is likely to acquire new attitudes which may be contrary with his home setting. It may also mean that if one of the purposes of offering scholarships to African students is to allow appreciation of the host country's culture, this purpose may not necessarily be met. On the other hand studies of German leader teams in the United States conducted by Jeane Watson and Ronald Lippitt (1955), and reported by Smith (1969) which show a compromise of attitudes may shed light on the situation:

> Which Germans were touched most deeply by their American experience? Those who had managed to keep both home and American considerations in some sort of precarious balance throughout their sojourn, without losing sight of either. They were the ones who

> would ask embarrassing questions; who would object that this or that vaunted American practice might work here but would never do in Germany. What they learned was more likely to find application, because they learned it with the home situation in mind.

Indeed one has no reason to believe that this is peculiar to visitors from only one country; in this kind of thinking African students may not be exceptional.

Implications for Those Who Arrange Orientation Programmes

It has been indicated that personal communication would be the most effective means of information. It may, therefore, be of an advantage to take a new look at the orientation programmes. Instead of concentrating on other means of delivering information, perhaps some way of personal contact should be worked out. This was not only indicated by the actual study, but also by the responses the students gave to the question, "how should the orientation programmes be improved?" A copy of the cumulative responses is attached in Appendix C.

Implications for Further Study

The findings of the present study need further substantiation by means of investigations using other much larger populations of African students, and additional study might be taken in the following areas:

1. Since the questionnaire was used in this case for the first time, duplications on this type of study in other universities in Alberta or Canada should be conducted.

2. The same type of study with different variables than were used here should be undertaken to see whether there is any significant relationship between the new variables and the differences from the Alberta mean.
3. More importantly, longitudinal studies of the same type should be conducted several times over periods of time, and a follow-up study of the students returning to their home countries should be conducted also.
4. Since literature seems to emphasize the differences in cultural backgrounds, tests on different groups of students in blocks of similar cultural background should be conducted to see whether comparisons and generalizations can be made.
5. Individual countries sending students abroad should conduct similar studies when the students leave their countries and when they return, to see if there is any change, and try to relate the shift with certain variables.

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APPENDIX A

Correspondence

December 20, 1972

To All CIDA Students:

The information requested in the attached questionnaire will be used to help future foreign students. Please complete it and return it to the CIDA Office prior to December 29, 1972.

Yours truly,

RCWH/vs
Att'd.

R. C. W. Hooper
CIDA Co-ordinator

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire

Please answer all the questions as per instructions in each of the sections. Your name is not required. The information you give will be treated confidentially.

1. (a) Age - check one:

a. _____ under 18

b. _____ 18 - 21

c. _____ 21 - 24

d. _____ 24 - 27

e. _____ 27 - 30

f. _____ 30 - 33

g. _____ 33 - 35

h. _____ over 35

(b) How many people in your family lived together including other children, parents and other relatives in 1969:

a. _____ 2 or less

b. _____ 3 or 4

c. _____ 5 or 6

d. _____ 7 or 8

e. _____ 9 or 10

f. _____ 11 or more

2. (a) Sex and marital status - check one:

a. _____ single male

b. _____ single female

c. _____ married male

d. _____ married female

e. _____ separated, divorced or widowed male

f. _____ separated divorced or widowed female

3. Place of birth - check one:

a. _____ Alberta

b. _____ Outside of Alberta but in Canada

c. _____ British Commonwealth South of Sahara (Africa)

d. _____ French community South Sahara (Africa

e. _____ Elsewhere

4. Think of the place in which you lived for the longest time between the age of 15 and your present age. How big is that place? Check one:

   a. _____ 1,000 people

   b. _____ 1,000 - 5,000 people

   c. _____ 5,000 - 25,000 people

   d. _____ 25,000 - 200,000 people

   e. _____ more than 200,000 people

5. How long have you been in

   1. Alberta _____ months

   2. Non-Alberta N. America _____ months

   3. Your 'native' country _____ months

   4. Other places _____ months

6. How many years have you attended any University? Check one:

   a. _____ Beginning my first

   b. _____ Beginning my second

   c. _____ Beginning my third

   d. _____ Beginning my fourth

   e. _____ Beginning my fifth

   f. _____ More than five years

7. Since leaving any school, how many years have you spent away without going to school or University? Check one:

   a. _____ None

   b. _____ 1 Year

   c. _____ 1 - 3 Years

   d. _____ 3 - 5 Years

   e. _____ 5 - 8 Years

   f. _____ 8 - 11 Years

   g. _____ Over 11 Years

8. Whom did you work for?

How much working experience have you had?	Government	Partly Govt. Inst. (para-statal)	Private Institutions (i.e., school board	Private Company	Self-employed	Firm partly owned by a relative	On farm i.e., raising wheat
a. None							
b. 0 - 2							
c. 2 - 5							
d. 5 - 8							
e. 8 - 11							
f. 11 - 14							
g. Over 15 Yrs.							

9. What is the widely-spoken language in your country? Check one:

   a. _____ English

   b. _____ French

   c. _____ Swahili

   d. _____ Hausa

   e. _____ Afrikanner

   f. _____ Arabic

   g. _____ Any other language

10. Some Africans think they have a different background from that of Albertans, some Africans think their background is similar to that of Albertans. What do you think? Check one:

   (a) African background is similar to most of Albertans _____

   (b) African background is different from most Albertans _____

11. Where would you place your personal culture or life style? Check one:

   1. Close to the other students from my own country _____

   2. Close to the other African student from a country other than my own _____

   3. Close to the culture of Alberta students _____

12. Group membership. Please write the correct number into the matrix

	Office you hold or you once held: 1. Pres. (Chairman) Vice (Vice Chairman)	2. Secretary Treas. & Committee Member	3. Any other position	Degree of participation: 1. In most of all activities	2. 1/2 of the activities	3. Less than 1/2 of the activities	4. Very few activities	(a) Informal group
Groups whose members are mostly Alberta students								
Groups whose members are mostly students from your country								
Groups whose members are mostly students from African countries								
Groups whose members are mostly Alberta and African students								

13. Do you see yourself giving up some of the aspects of your culture or life style

Yes ___ No ___

If yes do you attribute it to the following reasons:

1. So as to be like the majority (Alberta students) _____
2. To please Alberta students _____
3. To hide those things because Alberta students will consider them primitive _____
4. For the purposes of adaptability _____
5. Others. Specify _____

_____ _____

14. Do you think that you are deliberately aware of the fact that you don't want to change some of the things in your culture or life style?

Yes ___ No ___

Check One:

If yes are these reasons applicable?

1. As I accept the fact that I am different _____
2. To continue relationships with my fellow students from your country _____
3. Since it is too late to change _____
4. Change would not serve any purpose _____
5. Others. Specify _____

_____ _____

15. Do you think you have changed your life style, say now you hold different values or attitudes from when you came?

Yes ____ No ____

Check One:

If yes do these reasons apply?

1. Now I have more information _____
2. I have stayed long enough _____
3. A friend has influenced me _____
4. I cannot afford to remain as I came _____
5. Others. Specify. _____

_____ _____

16. Which of the following media most informs or reformed you about the Alberta way of life?

Check one:

1. Television _____
2. Radio _____
3. Newspapers and Magazines _____
4. A friend (this may be classmate, girl or boy friend, professor, etc. _____
5. Orientation Programme _____

17. If you were to advise a newly-arrived person, which of the following things would you recommend to associate with in order to get acquainted with the Alberta environment?

Check one:

1. Television _____
2. Radio _____
3. Newspapers and Magazines _____
4. A friend _____
5. Orientation Programme _____

18. About how much time do you spend watching television on a week day?

Check one:

1. None or almost none _____
2. Less than one hour a day _____
3. Between two and three hours a day _____
4. More than three hours a day _____

19. One of the aims of orientation programmes is to assist students, newly arrived, to 'fit in'. Do you think the orientation you attended -

Check one:

1. Met the aim _____
2. Fell short of meeting the aim _____
3. Was too much for the aim _____
4. Could have been organized a little differently to meet the aim _____

20. List about four things you would like added or dropped from the orientation programme offered to the foreign students:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

21. In which of the following countries have you visited or lived in? Do not check the country you were born in.

	Less than 3 mos.	3 - 6 months	6 - 12 months	12 - 24 months	Over 24 months
1. England					
2. Western European Countries					
3. Eastern European Countries					
4. West Indies					
5. South America					
6. United States					
7. Middle East					
8. East Asiatic Countries					
9. India & Pakistan, Ceylon					
10. Australia, New Zealand, Tasmania					

22. Have you observed any shift of attitudes of some of the African students since their arrival?

Check one:

1. The shift of attitudes about things is toward Alberta student thinking _____
2. The shift of attitudes is toward the thinking of other African students _____
3. No observable shift of attitudes _____
4. The shift of attitudes is in fact an intensification of their former attitudes _____
5. They may have held present attitudes before _____

23. Which of the following statements would you tend to agree with?

Check one:

1. Social pressure leads me to conform _____
2. Social pressure leads me to withdraw _____
3. Social pressure leads me to conform temporarily _____
4. Social pressure leads me to withdraw temporarily _____
5. I don't notice social pressure _____
6. I am aware of social pressure and I fight conformity without withdrawing _____

24. Circle one number for each social issue:

Listed below are 10 social issues that some people are very concerned about. But other people are less concerned about them and we are interested in how much concern you have for each of the following: No. 1 - least concern)_____(No. 5 most concern.

1.	Lack of concern for the quality of life	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Failure to fight against pollution and failure to take care of the environment	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Failure to help developing nations through meaningful foreign aid	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Failure to provide means for subsidized advanced education	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Lack of individual autonomy	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Failure to provide equal opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Too much emphasis on the concept that time is money	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Lack of concern for the problems of foreign students	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Lack of tolerance to immigrants	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Lack of concern that lawlessness is the result of shortcomings in society	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

Recommendations for Improving Orientation Programmes

APPENDIX C

"How should the orientation programmes be improved?"

Cumulative Responses:

1. Part of the orientation programme should be conducted before the student leaves his/her home country to avoid cultural shock. Content should include a variety of information: climate, food, clothing, entertainments, housing and academic levels in different disciplines.
2. African students who have been at any tartery institution in Alberta should be involved in the orientation programmes. There are things seemingly unimportant which one cannot get from the programmes of orientation week.
3. People who have worked in foreign countries, especially in African states and who may be available in Alberta be it students or non-students, should also be involved in the programme.
4. Opportunities should be made available to interact with Canadian students currently registered at the University of Alberta as much and as closely as possible during the orientation week. This should provide opportunities to gain some insight of the curriculum in various faculties.
5. City tours should be encouraged so new students may be exposed to key places of Edmonton.
6. Topics of discussion during the orientation programme here, at the University should include a whole range of issues: from foods to "socializing." For example it has taken some students two years

to know the existence of tropical food stores in Edmonton.

7. Orientation programmes should address themselves to person-to-person interaction. One learns more from another individual than from a lecturer in the lecture hall.